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issue bonds for gold, paying 5 per cent., and replace or increase the reserve fund" (p. 317).

The prominence assigned to Dr. Soetbeer's plan for the more extended use of silver, now being discussed in connection with the present monetary congress at Brussels, lends some interest to his views on the future value of silver. In the summer of 1891, he held strongly to the view that silver was likely to rise in value, if the United States continued its annual purchase of 54,000,000 ounces, under the Act of July 14, 1890, because the Indian demand would take off the remainder of the annual product of silver,—provided no change took place in the quantity of silver production. In this view he stood alone, Bamberger quite disagreeing with him. The increase in the production of silver, however, has been a marked feature of recent years. Subsequent events, therefore, obliged him to give up this view; and in his letters to the writer he expressed his surprise that we did not repeal the Act of July 14, 1890.

J. LAURENCE LAUGHLIN.

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*La Population Française. Histoire de la population avant 1789, et Démographie de la France comparée à celle des autres nations au XIXe siècle, précédée d'une introduction sur la Statistique. Par É. LEVASSEUR, Membre de l'Institut. Paris: Arthur Rousseau, 1892. 8vo., 3 vols., pp. xlvii. + 468; 529; 569.*

This monumental work, of which the first installment appeared in 1889, and the second in 1891, is now completed by the publication of the third volume. The author modestly says that it is "a book of numbers." It is nevertheless a book which is eloquent and persuasive. It demonstrates the importance, in social calculations, of facts which are capable of numerical expression; and by the same demonstration it reveals the incompleteness of social expositions from which consideration of these classes of facts has been omitted. The work is not, like so many pretentious statistical exhibits, a curiosity shop of wares for which nobody has a use. It is a repository of information, from which the historian, the economist, the statistician, the sociologist, the statesman, will derive broader views of the social relations with which each is particularly concerned.

The introductory chapters of the first volume constitute a concise, and at the same time a comprehensive treatise upon the object, the methods and the history of statistics. The body of the work is divided

into four books. Of these, the first treats the history of population in France before 1789, and especially the immense changes which occurred in the numbers, in the distribution and in the material condition of the people. Book second is devoted to the comparative demography of France. It divides the material into three parts, viz.: the conditions of the population, the movements of population, and the considerations resulting from the combined study of these conditions and movements. The third book treats of moral statistics with particular reference to their bearing upon demography. The fourth book consists of an investigation of the laws of population, and the equilibrium of nations.

It would be impossible to render a fair account of the scope of the work in greater detail, without reproducing the table of contents and the analysis of chapters. We may assert, however, that the first book amounts to a proof that historiography is seriously deficient up to date, in attention to the numerical data of the conditions of peoples whose life history it purports to reproduce. No thesis containing this criticism is proposed by the author, yet his discussion of the facts of population compels the perception that, if such material as this work contains were added to written history, the perspective would frequently be changed beyond recognition. One is led to imagine the history of France rewritten with inclusion of the statistical data available in the sources to which M. Levasseur calls attention. The result is not a mere increase of mass. It is a reorganization of components, as by the introduction of a new element into a chemical combination. The contrast between the new and the old would be analogous to that between our present knowledge of the Norman period in England, and accounts of that time which might have been written without help from the contents of Domesday Book.

Books II. and III. contain the major portion of the statistical material upon which the author bases his demography. His own definition of the latter department of social science is: "the science which, with the aid of statistics, treats of human life considered principally with reference to births, marriages and deaths, to the relations which result from these phenomena, and to the general condition of population which is the consequence of them."

The first chapter of Book II. shows the reason why the science of demography was impossible until late in the present century. No accurate census was undertaken by the great nations of modern Europe

until the opening of the century, and vital statistics had not been scientifically preserved or collected. Subsequent chapters not only contain rich collections of facts, but the author's classifications of the facts must be accepted as at least hypothetical determinations of the categories under which the facts pertinent to the demography of every country should be arranged. The author does not confine himself strictly to tabulations, even in this portion of his work; and his judicial treatment of the relation of education to morals may serve as a sample of his method. The passage which follows relates to that factor of education which the term "instruction" accurately designates, and which the author, in gratifying contrast with the majority of English writers, carefully discriminates from "education." We therefore retain the former word.

"The question of the connection of instruction and criminality is already in part answered by the foregoing. It is evident that the relation between the two terms is not necessary and mathematical, since we find other causes which exercise a marked influence upon crimes.

"We cannot say that instruction banishes crime. To abolish crime it would be necessary to expel from men's hearts all bad passions, and from society all evil purposes and policies. This is utopian. Instruction tends to mould the moral sense of a population, at the same time that it augments the means of preventing misery, and it thereby throws a double weight into the scale of good influences. But it is a positive quantity still further in the long series of positive or negative terms of a very complex formula. It will never be the whole formula.

"On the other hand, a still graver error has been committed in the assertion that the progress of instruction contributes to the increase of crime. As proof, two arguments have been taken from the statistics of the courts: first, the number of criminals who have received instruction tends to increase; second, many of the departments which are most advanced in provision for instruction are among those most infested with criminals. This is the fallacy *cum hoc ergo propter hoc*.

"It is a fact that the number of the totally illiterate is diminishing, and that, consequently, the number of criminals who have had instruction tends to increase. But this condition is a consequence of the general diffusion of instruction in France. If instruction were made universal, all criminals would be instructed persons. . . . The change in the proportion leads to but one certain conclusion, viz.: that instruction has become more widely diffused. . . .

“The second sophism is more specious, but it is not better founded. The departments where instruction is advanced, are, for the most part, rich; they have been able to make large appropriations for their schools, and their populations, compared with those of poorer districts, have a correspondingly greater appreciation of the need of instruction. Moreover, the wealthy departments have a large proportion of city population, and active industry. Instruction does not then appear there as the correlative of criminality. The real explanation is the fact of wealth, which, on the one hand, facilitates and demands instruction, and, on the other hand, multiplies the occasions for crime. Does it follow that wealth must be condemned? Wealth is, in itself, a good, since it provides for man the means of satisfying his needs, which is precisely the end for which men are impelled to labor; but it is necessary to know how to profit by the advantages which it procures, so as to provide remedies for the disadvantages which may accompany its attainment. . . . It is not yet possible to decide whether the repressive and preventive measures of contemporary society more than counterbalance the multiplying temptations.”

It would be impossible to name an unimportant chapter in the three volumes; but no portion of the work is more likely or more worthy to be received as a model of method than the first section of Book IV., in which the problem of Malthus is treated. It has taken a long time to discover that the real problem is not Malthus, but population and subsistence. It has taken the same time to realize that the solution of the problem is not in the formulæ of Malthus; for, right or wrong, these are hardly more than a bold guess; but in facts which Malthus did not possess, though he ventured a dogmatic generalization from the comparatively meager collection within his knowledge. The significance of M. Levasseur's work upon this problem is not primarily in his conclusions, but in the authority of the method by which the conclusions are derived. By examination of the facts of population in France since accurate records have been kept, M. Levasseur arrives at results which are first formulated in sixteen (16) propositions, in place of the single tripartite dogma of Malthus. By comparing these results with generalizations of the experience of Great Britain and the United States, he confirms the narrower induction. We do not find in this study any final word upon the problems in question, but we find the method which will dictate the final word. So far as induction has been possible, it warrants the author's conclusion: “The progress of wealth, and

its increase, more rapid than that of population, in civilized states during the last sixty years and more, is a fact of which the evidence strikes the eye of everyone who studies and reflects. The economists know the causes of the phenomena; the statisticians are trying to measure their intensity."

ALBION W. SMALL.

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*The Silver Situation in the United States.* By F.W. TAUSSIG. Publ. of Amer. Econ. Assoc., Vol. VII., No. 1. January, 1892. 8vo., pp. 118.

This monograph conveys to the general reader a clear account of the operations and character of our monetary legislation since 1878, particularly such as relate to silver coinage, and furnishes in compact form a considerable store of facts coupled with a lucid explanation of them. While nothing, in the nature of the subject, is especially recondite or new, yet the value of the book lies in the giving of a connected story of our monetary activity in a period when our legislation has been exceptionally eccentric.

Part I. treats of the "Economic Situation;" Part II. (pp. 85-118) treats of the "Argument for Silver." In Part I., after explaining the act of 1878, a division is made into the periods 1878-1884, 1885-1886, and 1886-1890. The period of 1878-1884 was marked by an increase of silver dollars in actual circulation; a rough correspondence between the amount of silver currency authorized and the amount in circulation; and a supply of net gold in the United States Treasury varying about the line of \$150,000,000. In the period of 1885-1886, a suspension of gold payments by the Treasury was feared; the actual circulation of silver dollars reached their highest limit at about \$60,000,000; the silver coined collected in the Treasury, and the amount of silver currency authorized was far larger than the amount in circulation; and the net gold in the Treasury dropped below \$120,000,000. In 1886-1890, business prosperity was coupled with devices for making a place for silver currency in our circulation; by 1889 the annual coinage of silver was pushed out of the treasury into the hands of the public, through the use of small denominations of silver certificates and the shrinkage of the National Bank issues; the silver dollars could not be kept above about \$60,000,000; and the net gold in the treasury, which in 1888 had risen above \$210,000,000, steadily fell to about \$120,000,000 again. The author